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The Degree Dilemma

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"I shudder every time I change jobs (for fear that a prospective employer will check with the college), although I know I'm qualified in every other respect. Were my current employer to find out, I'd probably be fired, not because of work performance, but for covering up and lying on my applicaton."—Page 8

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. . . a promising start has been made in demonstrating that Federal, State, and local governments can work together to help people with serious employment problems compete more effectively for jobs.—Page 12

". . . next year I know where I'll be—working at a job I like, making good money, and looking ahead to becoming a journeyman, a foreman, maybe even a project supervisor."—Page 14

. . . there is a growing similarity between the occupational spectrum in private industry and the Federal Government, and . . . Government manpower development experiences are relevant to a growing portion of the business sector.—Page 23

". . . the big thing is that he really cares. When I was working on my GED, I kept saying, 'I can't do it.' He kept telling me, 'You can.' And he was right."—Page 22

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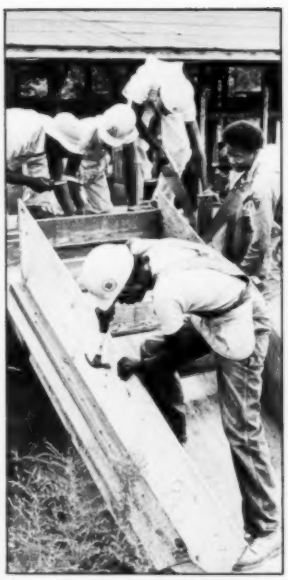

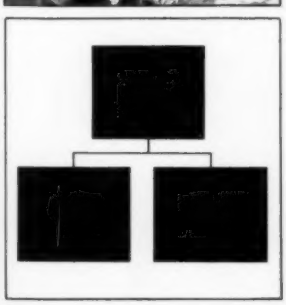

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The Degree Dilemma

by Michael E. Carbine

Employer Demands for College Education Rise as Enrollments Fall

"I was a laborer. That's where everybody starts in the mill unless you have a college education."

Studs Terkel, WORKING

One of the most important social changes now underway in the United States is the rapid increase in the levels of formal education of its citizens. The typical worker entering the labor force is more highly educated than ever and is steadily becoming more so. Educational credentials are more important to status, mobility, and financial success than ever, and are steadily becoming more so.

Despite its accuracy, this educational profile of the typical worker hides an interesting fact: In recent years more high school graduates have been choosing not to continue immediately into college, and largely for a new reason—lack of interest rather than lack of money. This trend, however, is not likely to stem the rise in the general educational level of the Nation's work force. Even with fewer high school graduates going to college, the younger workers who will be entering the work force in the coming years will have a considerably higher educational level than the older workers who will be leaving it.

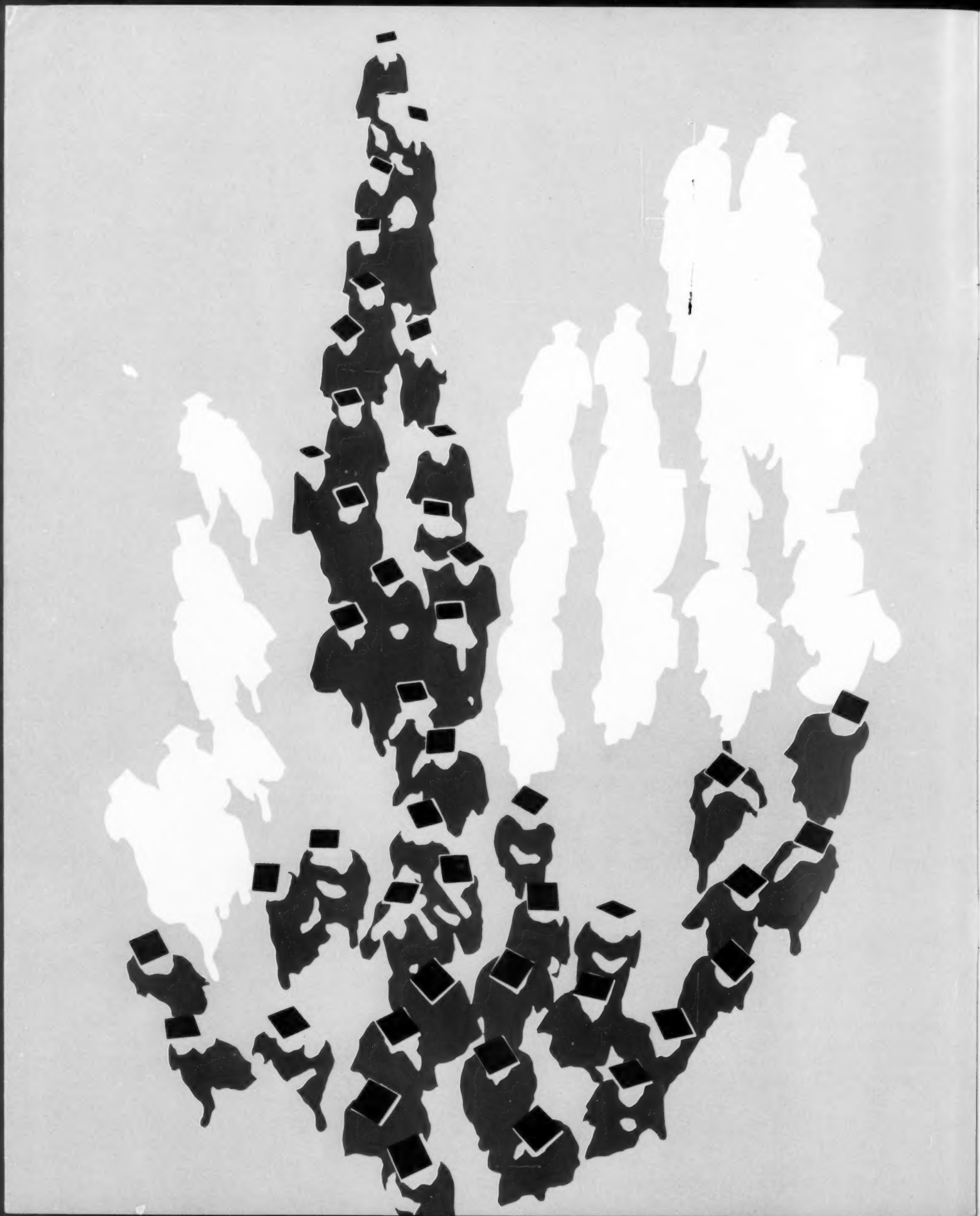
Whether high school students who reject immediate entry into college later decide to resume their education is largely unknown. But those who do not return to school risk becoming "undercredentialed" in a society where competition from college-educated workers is becoming intense.

In the postindustrial society toward which we are moving, knowledge will be one of the most important "products." Already family capital is beginning to give way to education as the primary determinant of an individual's economic status. At the same time, the business world is changing and is being reshaped by a number of complex factors that require a complete reappraisal of the traditional concept of economics and the corporation.

As we move from a goods-producing to a service-producing economy, and as the number of professionals and technicians grows, research organizations, industrial laboratories, universities, and similar "intellectual institutions" assume a more dominant role in our society. More and more, machines will handle the production of material goods, while people will deal with the flow of knowledge. The character of knowledge itself is changing, its importance as a product is increasing, and there are resulting changes in the nature of education. All of this means that more and more members of society must be able to make critical judgments, to find their way through new and often bewildering environments, and to readily isolate and determine relationships in new situations.

Dramatic changes also are taking

Michael Carbine is a freelance writer and consultant.



Degree Dilemma

place in the labor force and the economy. Manufacturing and other primarily blue-collar goods-producing industries are no longer the primary source of employment and economic expansion. Most of today's workers—47.5 million in 1970—are in service-producing and, primarily, white-collar industries such as education, health care, government, finance, insurance, transportation, communications and other utilities, and wholesale and retail trade. Employment in these industries is expected to increase 26 percent by 1980 compared with 12 percent for the manufacturing industries.

Degree Demands Grow

At the same time, the labor force has been shifting from a predominately noncollege-educated (but often skilled) pool of workers to one in which the level of educational attainment is rising dramatically. In the late 1950's, more than one-third of the adult civilian labor force (over 19 million workers) had completed only 8 years or less of formal education. By the early 1970's, this figure had diminished to about 12 percent, and by 1990 it is expected to be about 6 percent. According to Bureau of Labor Statistics data, by 1990, 4 out of every 5 workers will have graduated from high school, 16 percent will have completed 1 to 3 years of college, and almost 24 percent will have completed 4 or more years of college.

In the past two to three decades, a college degree has become increasingly important in terms of achievement, higher pay, mobility, and respect. That college-educated workers earn more is well documented. A recent Census Bureau report points out that in 1972 the pay of college-educated workers averaged $16,200 compared with $10,430 for high school graduates. Over a lifetime, the Census Bureau estimated, workers with 1 to 3 years of college could expect to earn an average of $300,000, while for college graduates this figure would be $388,000, and for those with 5 or more years of college education, $443,000. As these figures indicate, the market value of education has risen dramatically, perhaps to the point where it supersedes all the other values of education.

Today, a high school diploma is a prerequisite for a decent job. In the relatively near future, the 2-year college certificate and the 4-year college degree seem likely to replace that. This trend accompanies the shifts in the employment of the labor force. Some 80 percent of all college graduates in the labor force now are employed in the service-producing industries. Although the goods-producing industries do not usually need college graduates, the same labor-saving technological developments that tend to inhibit their overall employment growth might also result in the need for more highly educated workers. In sum, educational credentials will increase in importance, and as they do they will increasingly determine economic and social status.

But even though demands for education go up, not all jobs actually require higher educational levels. Often, higher educational requirements have been imposed on jobs needlessly.

Work in America, a study done under the auspices of the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, observed that while many new industries and occupational areas requiring more highly educated workers have appeared over recent years, in many cases employers simply raised the educational requirements of their jobs without changing the nature of the jobs themselves. Sometimes this is done to screen out applicants deemed undesirable or to upgrade the status of the position. But it also stems from the belief that better educated workers are easier to train, better disciplined, and more productive, articulate, intellectually curious, flexible, analytical, and highly motivated than their lesser educated counterparts. These beliefs persist despite the fact that the correlation between a worker's education and job performance has not been proved.

Credentialism probably is too deeply imbedded in our society to reverse. One result of this—and of the numerous campaigns to keep students from leaving school prematurely—has been to leave unchallenged employer demands for greater educational credentials, and to convince workers and employers alike that school dropouts (high school and, increasingly, college) are unemployable or high employment risks.

College Rolls Decline

But, as noted earlier, despite the rising demand for college-educated workers, the proportion of high school graduates who go on to college is declining. In the spring of 1972, the Census Bureau found that only 45 percent of all 1972 high school graduates were planning to continue on to college in the fall of that year (another 27 percent indicated that they may attend some time later but were unsure). The proportion of high school graduates who actually enrolled in college during the year of their graduation declined from a peak of 55 percent in 1968 to 49 percent in 1972. This was the lowest percentage since 1965, when the proportion was 51 percent. This decline was particularly noticeable among young men, with the proportion

Degree Dilemma

who went immediately into college dropping from 63 percent in 1968 to 53 percent in 1972.

Speculation as to the reasons for this decline, especially among white males, has centered on three possibilities: Lessened pressure to avoid the draft, disillusionment over job prospects resulting from increased unemployment among college graduates, and rising educational costs. Another reason was turned up in a 1972 survey of Florida high school seniors. The proportion of Florida high school graduates who chose not to enroll immediately in college increased from 37 percent in 1969 to 45 percent in 1972. Although in earlier years the prime reason for not continuing was lack of money, in 1972 the most frequently mentioned reason was lack of interest.

Some Take Time Out

There have always been some youth who take time out between high school and college to work, to travel, or generally to "find themselves." But recent decreases in college enrollment (1974 marks the second straight year of decline) suggest that—whatever the reason—a college education has lost its attraction for a considerable number of young people. And this comes at a time when the job market, for one reason or another, is making greater educational demands.

The occupational outlook for the high school graduate who does not go on to college or enter one of the high paying skilled trades is, at best, uncertain. Indeed, interviews with personnel officers, employment counselors, and school guidance specialists indicate that a college degree is fast becoming a requirement for a widening range of jobs.

Police work is one major occupational area in the public sector where a high school diploma or its equivalent is currently the norm. It also is one where pressures are now being exerted to raise this norm to the college level, and usually for the reasons cited earlier. The American Bar Association, in its 1972 report entitled *The Urban Police Function*, said, "Police agencies need personnel in their ranks who have the characteristics a college education seeks to foster: Intellectual curiosity, analytical ability, articulateness, and a capacity to relate the events of the day to the social, political, and historical content in which they occur."

Many police departments, including those in Atlanta, Boston, Dallas, Indianapolis, Memphis, and St. Louis, offer bonuses to officers continuing toward or possessing a college degree. In Atlanta, for example, police officers with 2 years of college get a 4.5 percent pay increase, while those with 4 years of college receive a 9 percent bonus.

In interviews, personnel officers and employment specialists in the private sector often give similar reasons for degree requirements. Clearly, many employers simply prefer more highly educated to less highly educated workers. This was particularly noticeable among personnel officers in professional organizations, which often place more stringent educational requirements on the same type of job than do other employers (secretaries at one professional organization are required to have a college degree).

When asked why an entry-level position in insurance sales required a liberal arts degree, one personnel representative said college-trained workers were more promotable, more responsible, more dedicated, and easier to manage than noncollege-educated people. The requirement was, by his own admission, a screening device. Would the company hire a noncollege graduate who had demonstrated a job performance record equal to or surpassing college graduates in the same position? Possibly. But the company worked heavily through a private employment agency, and the agency had standing instructions to screen out noncollege graduates.

The employment agency in question, part of a nationwide chain, confirmed that it now deals exclusively with college graduates since it has little call for anything else. The employment agency representative said that the college degree is now a necessity, and besides, in dealing with college graduates, one deals with a "better class of people."

Change in Attitudes Seen

The personnel director for one of the Nation's largest service companies traced the history of his organization's shift from noncollege to college graduates. In the 1960's, the firm used noncollege graduates exclusively. "We found that the typical college graduate of the 1960's was seeking a 'meaningful' job, a job less oriented toward business and more oriented toward social concerns," he said. "Because of this, college graduates were soon dissatisfied with their positions. The noncollege graduate, on the other hand, was eager and dedicated."

In the early 1970's, however, company studies revealed a greater degree of career orientation among college graduates. As a result, the company now feels that noncollege graduates tend to develop "tunnel vision," while college graduates are able to maintain a wider perspective and usually are better equipped for the kind of decision-making the company requires of its middle-management personnel.

Degree Dilemma

Rarely does this firm accept past work experience in lieu of a college degree because it has found that persons hired from other firms must "unlearn" previous training and be retrained. Since the shift to college graduates is fairly recent, the company is peppered with noncollege graduates, even in the upper echelons of management. But it maintains that as its operations expand and become more demanding, noncollege graduates tend to fall by the wayside, having reached their maximum potential. The personnel director emphasized that the noncollege graduates now working for the firm do meet its current standards, and that the company generally tries to promote from within. But college graduates admittedly are favored.

"Personally, I prefer a college graduate," the personnel director concluded. "In most cases, the graduate has a better facility for communicating with others, better vocabulary, better grasp for intangibles. At the same time, we have found that these graduates are more apt to keep the company uppermost in their order of priorities, while noncollege graduates are more worried about their own security in the job."

Despite such attitudes, it is not at all unusual in our society to find noncollege graduates functioning effectively in many degree-oriented occupations. Generally, these people are highly motivated and have high aspirations in terms of status and income. Some are sensitive about their lack of a degree and will not bring up the subject. Many appear to resent the requirement, especially since they have demonstrated that a degree is not a practical requirement for the jobs they hold. Some noncollege graduates have become so successful and well known in their fields that they no longer are hindered by a lack of certification. Others, especially those performing at somewhat lower levels, often are hampered by this.

Take Hazel Henderson, a successful and highly respected writer and consultant on social change issues. The author of numerous articles in prestigious publications, a consultant to many top corporations, and a resource participant in numerous national and international seminars and conferences, Ms. Henderson recently was named to the Advisory Council of the Office of Technology Assessment and serves as an active member on several boards and commissions.

Degree Bias Scored

Ms. Henderson has never attended college and has experienced discriminations because she lacks a degree. "People will pay an educationally certified businessman money to review and comment upon a report," she said, "but they frequently ask me to do it for nothing." Although she has been able to overcome such discrimination, largely by publishing extensively, she still speaks with regret of what she describes as a bias for validated knowledge and a distrust of knowledge gained through practical experience.

"Knowledge is validated only if acquired second hand, through recognized schools and teachers," she said. "But people can teach themselves, and in most instances very well. Unfortunately, this kind of learning fails to meet the certification requirements, and therefore we distrust and tend not to value anything self-taught."

John Williams has dealt with the degree discrimination problem in another way. Williams (not his real name) is a public relations specialist who has functioned well in a variety of promotional and informational jobs during his 8 years in the work force. A talented writer and organizer, Williams is not a college graduate, although the position he currently holds in a respected foundation requires a college degree. He got the job as a result of his work record and outstanding recommendations from previous employers, and by falsifying his resume on one matter: He claims to have graduated from college.

"It was a conscious decision," Williams said. "When I was younger, I was lazy and irresponsible. I left college after my second year, and never returned. After the Army, I was honest about the situation with prospective employers—and unemployed except for really meaningless jobs. I added college graduation to my resume, and landed a high salaried and responsible job almost immediately. Since then, I have performed capably in jobs which always require a degree I haven't got.

"I shudder every time I change jobs (for fear that a prospective employer will check with the college), although I know I'm qualified in every other respect. Were my current employer to find out, I'd probably be fired, not because of work performance, but for covering up and lying on my application. But short of taking off 2 years to return to school, which I couldn't afford at the time, what else could I do?"

John Williams' "solution" to the degree dilemma is not one that most people could or would use. It is, of course, no solution at all. But the dilemma exists for thousands of workers. And if college enrollments continue to decline and the tendency persists to raise educational requirements for jobs rather than make them more realistic, many more people are on a collision course with the same problem. □

CETA Progress Report

Local Control Off to Good Start Despite Tight Time Schedule

by William H. Kolberg

The gestation period for decentralization of manpower programs was marked by considerable discussion and debate about the ability and determination of State and local governments to design and administer these programs equitably and efficiently. Local control was viewed as a perilous course for a variety of reasons. Among those most often heard were:

- Political considerations would sap any real effort to apportion Federal manpower funds fairly among and within jurisdictions.
- Blacks and other minorities would get shortchanged because they lack sufficient political clout at the local level.
- Training and vocational programs would be swept away by a tide of public service employment programs because these programs could increase and improve State and local services without adding to the tax rate of these jurisdictions.
- The Federal Government would interfere in program design and operations, thus defeating the purpose of decentralization.

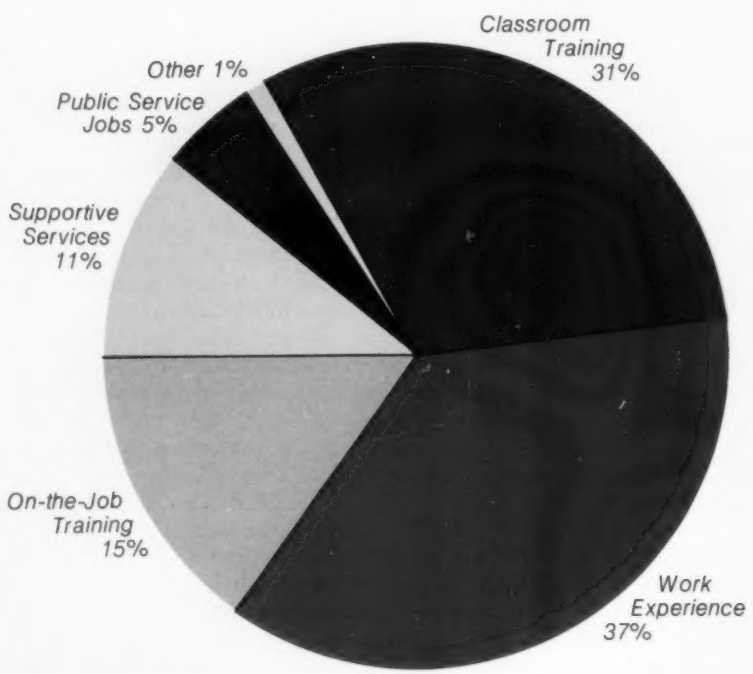
William Kolberg is Assistant Secretary of Labor for Manpower.

With the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) still in swaddling clothes, it is too soon to make definitive judgments. But experiences in implementing the legislation, and the content and thrust of first-year plans drawn up by local prime sponsors, offer a basis for comparing speculation to reality and provide some signposts for the future.

Given the history of manpower programs as a largely Federal responsibility, the temptation for the Manpower Administration to play a dominant role in shaping local plans appeared to be great. Moreover, this natural inclination was heightened by the tight schedule for putting CETA into nationwide operation. Further complicating the problem of treading the thin line between Federal responsibility and local autonomy was the fact that a number of prime sponsors had little or no experience in running manpower programs. Nevertheless, planning and initial implementation of local programs were accomplished without excessive oversight or a lot of hovering by the Manpower Administration.

Although time considerations did not dilute local control, there is evidence that the need to draw up plans rather quickly did influence some prime sponsors to rely heavily on the design and mix of programs used in the past. This was especially true of plans for comprehensive manpower services under Title I of CETA. A review of 65 percent of Title I plans shows that prime sponsors are allocating funds roughly in this way: Classroom training is getting 31 percent of the funds; work experience is getting 37 percent; on-the-job training is getting 15 percent; and supportive services are getting 11 percent.

'A review of 65 percent of Title I plans shows that prime sponsors are allocating funds roughly this way:'

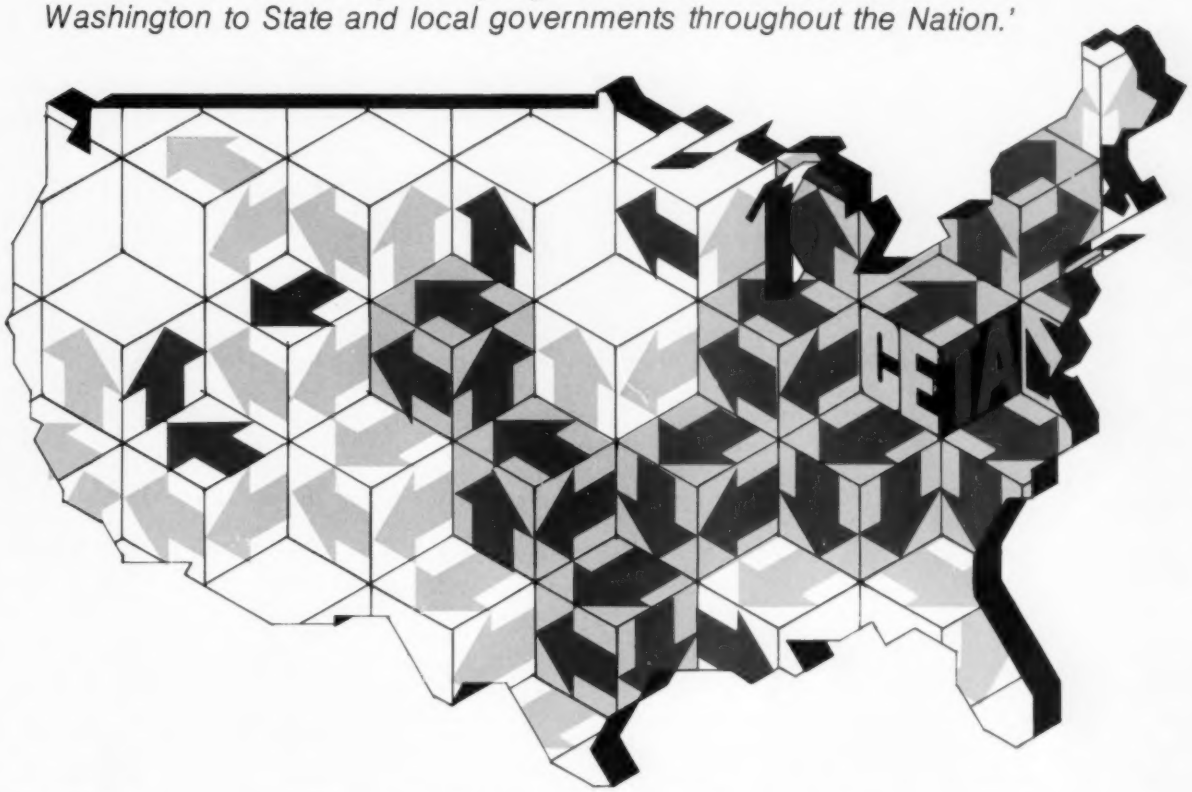


Of particular interest is the level of spending proposed by prime sponsors for public service jobs from the funds alloted to them under Title I for comprehensive manpower services. Although the legislation permits prime sponsors to spend a large portion of their Title I funds on public service employment, the review of first-year plans shows that sponsors are asking to spend 4 to 5 percent of funds under this title on public service jobs.

This percentage might have been a bit higher had it not been for supplemental money for public service jobs that became available late in fiscal year 1974 under the Emergency Employment Act. But the relatively low level of Title I spending for public employment should allay fears that shifting responsibility to State and local governments will drastically alter the way manpower money is used.

The most noticeable shift in manpower spending as a result of prime sponsor plans is in summer youth programs. Although CETA regulations provide that prime sponsors are responsible for financing all types of manpower activity, including this seasonal effort for disadvantaged youth,

'In a relatively few months the primary responsibility for running some $2 billion worth of manpower programs has been transferred from Washington to State and local governments throughout the Nation.'



from their overall CETA allocations, most did not include a 1975 summer jobs for youth program in their proposals. (A jobs for youth program was funded nationally this past summer.) Those who did not include summer jobs in their plans were instructed by the Manpower Administration to specify that they made this decision because they considered other programs more important and to describe this decision in their plans.

Under Title II of CETA, prime sponsors in areas with an unemployment rate of 6½ percent or more for 3 consecutive months are eligible for additional funds for transitional public service employment programs. These funds may be used for training and other manpower services as well as for public employment, but almost all plans submitted under Title II called for the money to be used for public jobs. Only a few prime sponsors proposed using such funds for other manpower services.

A major concern of the Manpower Administration is that prime sponsors' plans be responsive to those most in need of services, such as veterans, the disadvantaged, minority groups, youth, older workers, the handicapped, and ex-offenders. On the whole, the plans have reflected this emphasis. When they have not, the Manpower Administration has worked with the sponsors to make certain the intent of the CETA legislation is carried out.

Use of Resources Reviewed

Another important consideration is the use and coordination by sponsors of all manpower resources in their areas. These include the State employment service and unemployment insurance service, educational institutions, community action agencies, and such organizations as Operation SER, the Opportunities Industrialization Centers, and the Urban League. The employment service is being incorporated into more than two-thirds of the plans approved. Likewise, nearly two-thirds of the local sponsors are using the unemployment insurance service and its accounting and disbursing capabilities.

However, the employment service and unemployment insurance service man-years being supported through subagreements with prime sponsors under CETA in fiscal year 1975 could be as much as 25 percent less than the employment service and unemployment insurance service man-years supported under the Economic Opportunity Act and the Manpower Development and Training Act legislation in fiscal year 1974.

Manpower Administration responsibilities under CETA include monitoring administrative costs. A guideline of 20 percent was established for such costs. Projected outlays for administrative functions in prime sponsors' plans are averaging slightly less than 20 percent. Experienced sponsors had lower projections for administrative costs than did inexperienced sponsors.

About 500 eligible prime sponsors were expected to apply for grants under CETA. This estimate was based on

CETA criteria which permit State governments and units of general local government with a population of 100,000 or more to be prime sponsors. Actually, at latest count, there were 403 prime sponsors. The difference is due to the unexpected popularity of consortia. The prime sponsor list includes 136 consortia, each representing two or more units of government that have joined together to operate manpower programs.

This is an encouraging development. While there is some financial incentive for separate governmental units to form consortia, political and geographic factors often seem to militate against wide use of this potentially more efficient approach to program administration. A few consortia broke up after being formed, but the 136 now functioning are about three times the number anticipated by the Manpower Administration, and they account for about 28 percent of total CETA funds allocated under Title I.

Labor Market Data Lacking

The 403 prime sponsors also include 67 cities, accounting for about 25 percent of all Title I allocations; 147 counties with about 12 percent of the funds; and 49 States or territories that are operating programs for all areas within their jurisdictions which are not covered by local prime sponsors. These so-called balance-of-state prime sponsors have about 35 percent of Title I allocations. Four rural Concentrated Employment Programs complete the prime sponsor list.

A major shortcoming in the plans first submitted by most prime sponsors was the failure to include data showing the relationship between proposed manpower programs and area labor market problems. As a result, many initial plans were returned for additional data. Obtaining and analyzing labor market information is a crucial element of the manpower planning process, and many local planners need more experience in this area.

Other reasons for returning plans for revision were:

- Lack of adequate safeguards to assure equal employment opportunity.
- Too much generalization about population groups most in need of services.
- Failure to provide enough information on the degree to which community-based organizations were involved in planning.

A survey of prime sponsor planning councils showed their membership to be fairly well balanced among representatives of State and local government agencies and departments, business and industry, and client groups and community-based organizations. But membership on these councils does not by itself assure adequate involvement in the planning process. We have sought additional information from a number of sponsors to assure that there has been adequate involvement in the planning process by representatives of client groups and community-based organizations.

Along with its responsibility to review prime sponsor plans to assure that they meet basic CETA guidelines, the Manpower Administration will conduct a continuing, long-term evaluation of program results. The heart of this evaluation will be an effort to determine the impact participation in manpower programs has on earnings. Improvement in the earned income of participants is a fundamental program goal. Earnings evaluations will be undertaken through a national sample survey of participants, who will be tracked for 3 years after they go through local programs. Particular emphasis will be placed on sampling programs that provide training and other occupational development services.

Sufficient data on the postprogram earned income of participants will not be available for several years. In the interim, short-term evaluations will be made of how prime sponsors formulate and operate programs, and the reasoning behind their actions. This will help the Manpower Administration to determine what changes are required in CETA regulations.

Technical Support Stressed

Ongoing evaluations also will help guide the Manpower Administration in its technical assistance to prime sponsors. With responsibility for program design and contracting for individual program components at the local level, technical assistance has become a much more important function. The ability of the Manpower Administration to help prime sponsors meet clients' needs will depend in large measure on the quality of its technical assistance for program operation and service delivery.

The Comprehensive Employment and Training Act still is less than a year old. In a relatively few months the primary responsibility for running some $2 billion worth of manpower programs has been transferred from Washington to State and local governments throughout the Nation. Much remains to be learned about the long-range impact of this new approach to manpower programs. But a promising start has been made in demonstrating that Federal, State, and local governments can work together to help people with serious employment problems compete more effectively for jobs. □

Apprenticeship:
Head Start in High School

by Darrell Lucas

Carpentry Training Gives Youth Boost Toward Journeyman Status

Like many of today's youth, Carl Young is seeking a satisfying, rewarding career that is available without 4 years of college training. But unlike most of his peers, Young has found a way to get a good start on that kind of career while still in high school.

Young is a participant in an unusual skill training effort run by the District of Columbia Public Schools in cooperation with the local Joint Carpentry Apprenticeship Committee (JCAC), a labor-industry group that runs the apprenticeship program. The Career Development Program, as the training is called, is designed to provide apprentice carpenters for the area's building contractors while offering high school students 6 months' apprenticeship credit toward journeyman carpenter status plus credit toward high school graduation.

Darrell Lucas is a freelance writer.

The program began in the summer of 1972 with initial funding of $60,000 from the Manpower Administration. Thirty-one high school students who had just completed their junior year were recruited and given 6 weeks of classroom and practical instruction at the JCAC training center outside Washington. Then, during their senior year, participants spent half of each school day in regular classes and half at the training center. Upon graduation from high school, each trainee was helped to find a job.

Of the 21 participants who completed the course, 16 got jobs and became apprentice carpenters. All but three of those are still employed in the industry, and are more than halfway through their 4-year apprenticeship.

Another 25 students entered the program in the summer of 1973; 21 of them completed the course the following spring and were registered as apprentices with the carpenters' union. Of these, 18 were placed in jobs and are still employed. Some 40 students are now enrolled in a third training cycle.

The program's relatively high retention rate (the dropout rate for appren-

Apprenticeship

ticeship programs nationwide is estimated at about 50 percent) certainly is not due to immediate economic gain. During the summer portion of the program, when they spend 35 to 40 hours a week at the JCAC training center, students receive a stipend of $10 a day. They get no stipend for participating in the program throughout the school year, and must buy their own safety shoes, work clothes, and protective glasses.

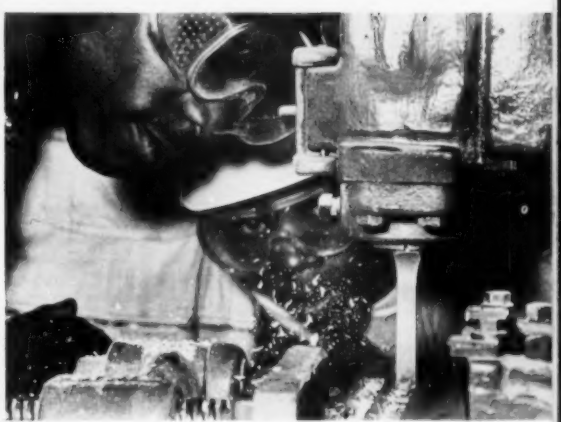
Students quickly learn during their summer session that the program is geared to professional-level work. Under the tutelage of journeymen carpenters, they move from basics such as math, use of tools, and identification of materials into more difficult areas such as estimating and blueprint reading, drafting, and wood and steel construction. Classroom study is accentuated in the early phase of the course, then concentrated "hands on" experience is stressed. As the students progress, they learn construction from the bottom up—from putting up forms for concrete slabs to building a roof.

Most students in the third cycle, who come from more than a dozen schools, are pleased at the training they are getting.

"I'm really learning a valuable skill," said Carl Young, "something I can be proud of." He pointed to a project he was working on. "When I'm done with this I can show it to people and say, 'Yeah, I made that.' Even more important, next year I know where I'll be—working at a job I like, making good money, and looking ahead to becoming a journeyman, a foreman, maybe even a project supervisor."

Earl Woodfork also views the program primarily in terms of the potential

Labor Dept. photos by Harrison Allen



it offers for getting a good job. Even the meager summer stipend "is okay," he said, "when I figure that I'll be making about $5.50 an hour at this time next year." Beginning apprentices in the building trades usually are paid 50 to 60 percent of the journeyman wage and receive periodic raises so that they reach full journeyman scale when they complete their training. Because they receive 6 months of apprenticeship credit for their training during high school, Career Development Program graduates begin at the second step of the apprentice pay scale.

An evaluation of the program that was done for the Manpower Administration last year identified some problem areas. Trainees complained of too much classroom training, not enough practical experience, and a failure to take account of individual differences in learning speed, the evaluation found.

Meeting this criticism has required a relatively simple adjustment, according to Joe Honeychuck, assistant director of the JCAC training center. "Some changes have been made in our training plan. As far as increasing practical experience, we hope to find outside projects—repairing lockers, bleachers, and chairs at area schools—as we did in the first cycle."

Some of the program's early difficulties resulted from a tight time schedule in getting the initial training underway, Honeychuck noted. Preparations at the training center had to be rushed, and the schools got a late start on recruiting.

"Trainees were picked up quickly from among those students who could be contacted," Honeychuck explained. "Many were on vacation, already working at summer jobs, or couldn't be

located." Thus the first trainees were not fully screened to determine their desire or ability to complete the program. High school counselors had more time to screen applicants for the subsequent training groups.

Interest and motivation of the students generally has been good, Honeychuck said, even among the original group, which had the highest dropout rate. As a case in point, he cited a strike during the first cycle that halted the bus service students used to get from their schools to the JCAC training site. "Many of them still got to the center—by hitchhiking, getting a friend or relative to drive them, or by other means. I thought that showed a true dedication to what they were doing."

Classroom Work Continues

One trainee who demonstrated exceptional dedication is Carl Lane. Despite a broken leg, he completed training and has now been working for over a year with a contractor on Washington's Metro subway system. Lane's job performance has been so impressive that he has been advanced by his employer to the seventh step of the eight-step apprentice pay scale.

As do all carpenter apprentices, Lane now returns to the JCAC center one day every 2 weeks for the classroom instruction that is a required part of the 4-year regular apprenticeship program. "I've learned a lot on the job from watching and working with experienced journeyman carpenters," Lane said. "But a lot of what I've accomplished I owe to the preparation I got from the Career Development Program. I really believe in it—in fact, I've recommended it to friends still in high school."

Earl White agrees with Lane's assessment. White, coordinator of the program for the D.C. public schools, said some similar training programs "cost two or three times as much per student." A big factor in keeping down program expenses, White pointed out, is the availability of the JCAC training center and equipment—facilities that would otherwise cost "quite a sum." Manpower Administration funding—which totaled about $130,000—terminated at the end of the 1974 summer training session. The full cost of the program now is being borne by the school system and the JCAC.

White and his supervisor, Bertha Bolden, director of interdisciplinary cooperative education for the D.C. schools, are among the program's prime movers. Teacher-coordinators in each public high school work closely with them in screening and selecting students. Radio spot announcements were developed to attract students to the first cycle. "We got quite a response," White recalled. "Although we asked only for high school juniors interested in the skilled trades, we received calls from a wide variety of people, including one 45-year-old man who wanted to change his job." He was referred to another agency.

The caliber of students in the program—the overwhelming majority of whom are black—has been consistently high. "When they first enter summer training, participants are given the regular carpenter apprentice entrance exam, just to see how they do," White said. "In nearly every instance, Career Development trainees outscored regular appentice applicants who had come in and applied off the street. We also found that at the end of the summer session, when our people retook the exam, all but two of them improved their score by 20 or more points." The union does not require youth who complete the program to take the entrance exam—they are looked upon as qualified to become carpenter apprentices.

Most participants seem to feel that the Career Development Program gives them an edge over "regular" apprentices. Mark Harris pointed out that trainees who come in off the street to apply for apprenticeship have to pay a registration fee and buy their own equipment. "Just for saving you that money, the program is worthwhile," he said, "although I think it was worth much more to me."

Even Dropouts Benefit

Although he is pleased with the program's completion and placement rates, White feels that even those youngsters who drop out have benefited. "Some students enter the program only to find they don't really have an interest in the field, or can't keep up with the work," he said. "At least they have been exposed to—and have gained an understanding of—this type of work. It helps them choose a career they do want to pursue."

With 2 years of experience under its belt, the program is beginning to attract some attention from surrounding areas. According to White, school officials in nearby counties have indicated an interest in starting similar programs.

The experiences in the Career Development Program are especially noteworthy in a period of heightened interest in revitalizing the apprenticeship system. In July, when he reactivated the Federal Committee on Apprenticeship, Labor Secretary Peter J. Brennan called for "a new strategy . . . to give the apprenticeship system new life, new vigor, and new directions." Brennan said that one of the committee's goals would be to find new approaches to apprenticeship and skills training. □

News & Notes

Nine elected officials who devised exemplary plans for manpower programs under the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act have received letters of commendation from President Ford. Cited by the President were Mills Godwin, Governor of Virginia; Philip Noel, Governor of Rhode Island; Daniel Evans, Governor of Washington; Calvin Rampton, Governor of Utah; Thomas Donelon, president of Jefferson Parrish Council, Louisiana; John Klein, county executive of Suffolk County, New York; Tom Moody, mayor of Columbus, Ohio; Hans Tanzler, mayor of Jacksonville, Florida; and John Reading, mayor of Oakland, California. Six of the nine were able to attend White House ceremonies to receive their letters personally from the President. Also attending were Secretary of Labor Peter J. Brennan, Under Secretary of Labor Richard F. Schubert, and Assistant Secretary of Labor for Manpower William H. Kolberg.

* * *

The Census Bureau has come up with this occupational breakdown on working women: About one-third of all employed women are bookkeepers, secretaries, typists, file clerks, or have similar jobs. About 17 percent are service workers—beauticians, waitresses, attendants, and the like. Another 16 percent are professional, technical, and kindred workers such as teachers, nurses, technicians, physicians, and lawyers. (Of this group, about 40 percent are elementary or secondary school teachers.) Almost 14 percent of all employed women operate machines or do similar work.

* * *

William B. (Bert) Lewis is the new head of the U.S. Employment Service. Lewis has overall responsibility for employment and technical assistance services carried out through the State employment service agencies. He replaces Robert Brown, who is now the Labor Department's Assistant Regional Director for Manpower in Denver. Lewis, 40, comes to his new position after a year with the General Electric Company in New York, an assignment under an executive interchange program involving industry and government. Before that he was executive director of the Price Commission. From 1970 to 1971, Lewis was regional manpower administrator in Chicago, and from 1968 to 1970 he held a similar position in Boston.

* * *

Introducing women to nontraditional jobs is the idea behind a new course offered at the Los Angeles Job Corps Center. The course, Vocational Exploration in Mechanical/Technical Skills, acquaints Corpswomen with basic skills they may need to pursue jobs in woodworking, general assembly and repair, electronics, drafting, and other occupations once considered for men only.

* * *

Nearly $97 million in back wages was found due to about 357,000 underpaid workers in fiscal 1974 as a result of U.S. Department of Labor enforcement of wage and hour laws. Enforcement activities in fiscal 1973 resulted in findings that 365,000 workers were due about $85 million in back pay. About 262,000 underpaid employees received a total of $50 million in back wages in fiscal 1974, as compared with $40 million restored to 259,000 workers in fiscal 1973. The major reason for the difference between what was due and what was paid was the refusal of employers to pay back wages in cases that the Labor Department found unsuitable for litigation. In such cases, an employee has the right to institute private and independent action for the recovery of back wages. Substantial amounts of wages are recovered by employees in this way but are not reflected in the Department's statistics.

* * *

About 900 jobless and disadvantaged persons will be trained on the job in tool and die shops under a $1.7 million Manpower Administration contract with the National Tool, Die, and Precision Machining Association. The association will develop subcontracts among its 1,800 member shops in 13 States under the 1-year contract. Vietnam-era veterans and minorities will receive preference as applicants. Trainees will

receive 18 weeks of on-the-job training coupled with 12 weeks of classroom instruction. Those who successfully complete both components will be accepted as apprentices. Trainees will be recruited through local apprenticeship outreach projects as well as local employment service offices and other community organizations.

* * *

About 23 million Americans were in families with incomes below the poverty level in 1973. This figure represents a decline of about 1.5 million people from the previous year. The current poverty level for a nonfarm family of four is $4,275. Census Bureau figures show that the national median income in 1973 was $12,050.

* * *

The gap between the income of white and black families widened in 1973, the Census Bureau has reported. The median income of a black family of four in 1973 was 58 percent of that of a white family of the same size, a drop of 1 percent from the previous year. The Bureau, in reporting on its annual survey of the economic and social status of black Americans, also noted that the substantial income gains made by blacks during the second half of the 1960's had slowed markedly in the early 1970's.

* * *

People with rheumatic heart disease, a previous heart attack, or a history of psychiatric treatment stand little chance of getting any kind of a job, two New York City doctors who polled industrial physicians have reported in the Archives of Environmental Health. Employer hesitancy to hire such people stems from concern over insurance costs, worker compensation rates, and loss of worktime, the doctors found.

* * *

Information on State laws and regulations concerning the licensure of health personnel is being compiled by the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare's Bureau of Health Resources Development. The project will provide licensing information on some 35 health professions and occupations in the 50 States, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands. Included in the survey are such occupations as physician, dentist, optometrist, pharmacist, podiatrist, veterinarian, nurse, social worker, physician assistant, and emergency medical personnel, among others.

* * *

The International Association of Fire Fighters (IAFF) will recruit and prepare 700 persons, mostly from minority groups, for fire department job examinations. Under a 1-year, $324,000 contract with the Manpower Administration, the IAFF will seek approximately 60 minority applicants in each of 12 cities: Atlanta, Chicago, Fort Lauderdale, Houston, Los Angeles, Louisville, Milwaukee, Minneapolis, Orlando, Phoenix, St. Paul, and Tucson. Local firefighters in each of the cities will establish a recruitment program and a course of instruction, and provide whatever support is needed by the candidates to help them meet entrance requirements. The IAFF is a union of professional firefighters.

* * *

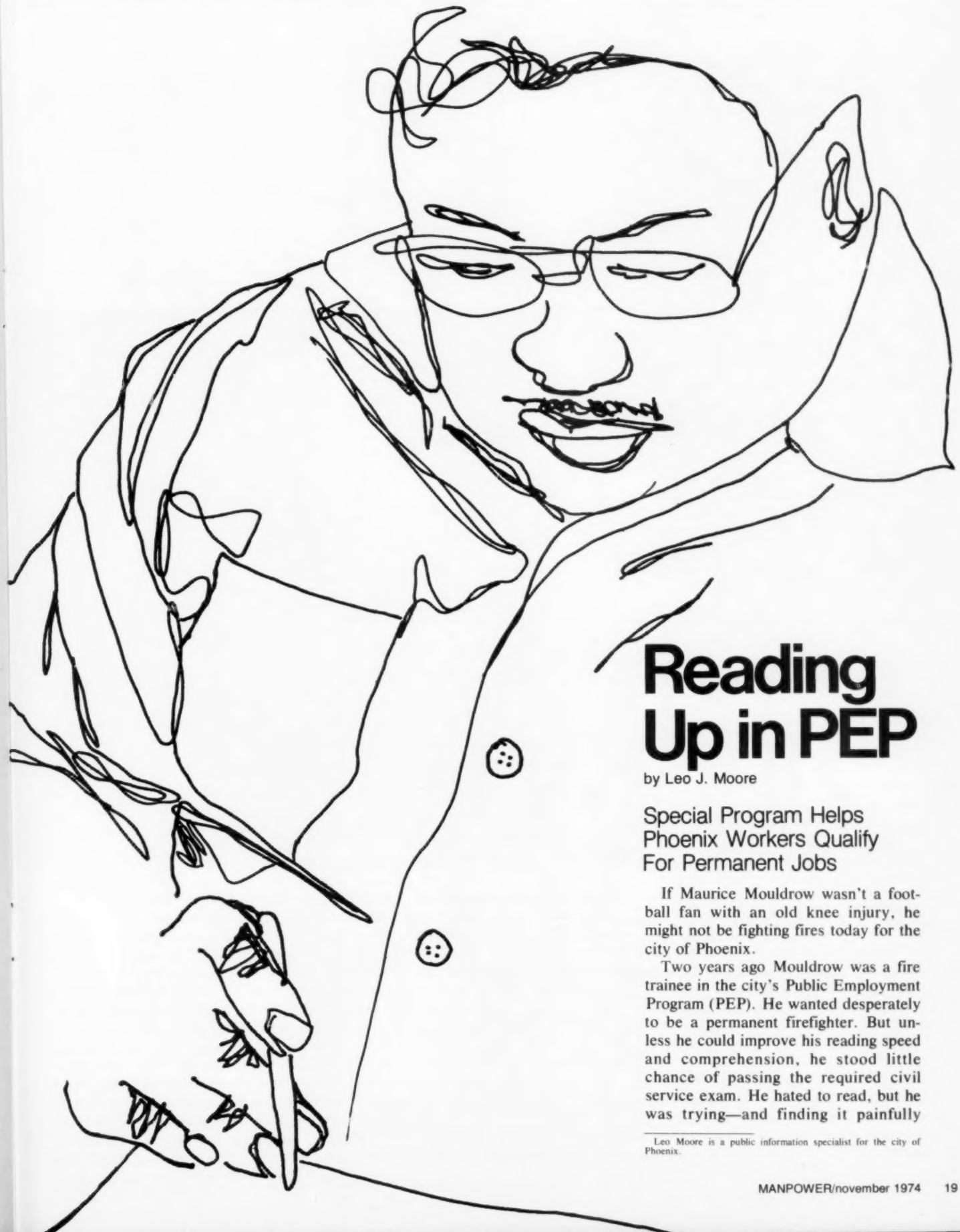
A University of Wisconsin research project indicates that decreases in college tuition can result in dramatic increases in enrollment, according to the American Association of State Colleges and Universities (AASCU). The study found that each $100 decrease in tuition at the two schools where the project was carried out resulted in an enrollment increase between 4.8 and 12.2 percent above the average increase for the Wisconsin system. Many of the additional students who enrolled said that they could not have attended college except for the combination of low tuition and geographic access. In the Wisconsin project, tuition and fees were reduced from $515 to $180 a year at one university center and from $476 to $150 a year at another. Enrollments rose 23 percent and 47 percent, respectively.

* * *

About 300 unemployed and underemployed persons in 10 States will be trained as physical therapy aides, psychiatric aides, surgical technicians, and prosthetic and orthotic technicians under a $210,000 Manpower Administration contract with the International Association of Rehabilitation Facilities, Inc. Training will run from 4 to 52 weeks depending on the occupation, and all trainees will be employed during training. The International Association of Rehabilitation Facilities is a nonprofit organization representing institutions specializing in physical and psychiatric rehabilitation work.

* * *

Of the 10 top-earning occupations for men in America, eight are in the medical and legal professions—physicians, dentists, judges, lawyers, college teachers of law and health specialties, optometrists, and veterinarians —according to the Bureau of Labor Statisics. The other two are actuaries and airplane pilots. The situation is different for women. Of the occupations listed above, only physicians are among the women's top 10. High-earning jobs for women tend to be engineering and craft occupations, in which there are relatively few female workers.



Reading Up in PEP

by Leo J. Moore

Special Program Helps Phoenix Workers Qualify For Permanent Jobs

If Maurice Mouldrow wasn't a football fan with an old knee injury, he might not be fighting fires today for the city of Phoenix.

Two years ago Mouldrow was a fire trainee in the city's Public Employment Program (PEP). He wanted desperately to be a permanent firefighter. But unless he could improve his reading speed and comprehension, he stood little chance of passing the required civil service exam. He hated to read, but he was trying—and finding it painfully

Leo Moore is a public information specialist for the city of Phoenix.

Reading

slow going. Five minutes a day was drudgery.

What sparked his interest was football star Gale Sayers' I AM THIRD. Sayers' account of the knee injury that threatened his career, his corrective surgery, and recovery nearly duplicated Mouldrow's own experience. It was a book he could relate to. After he finished it, he wanted—and got—more books about sports figures. And the more he read, the better he read. Soon he was mastering technical information that seemed impossibly difficult before. Today he is a reader—and a permanent city firefighter.

Mouldrow's job progress stems from a new program offered by the city of Phoenix that has public employees reading for fun and profit. It has helped scores of workers hired through PEP qualify for permanent jobs previously beyond their reach.

Fire Trainees Tutored

The problem, according to Oscar Douglass, PEP coordinator for the city, was that "most PEP employees lacked the educational skills necessary to pass entrance exams. In most instances, we overcame this problem by substituting performance tests for written tests. But workers still have to pass written tests for promotions and some jobs."

Among the first to face that hurdle were Mouldrow and his fellow PEP fire trainees. In the summer of 1972, the future of these 14 men was in jeopardy. Fire department officials thought they had little chance of passing the exam for permanent positions. To improve their prospects, the PEP staff decided to experiment with a reading program; and they hired Ken Cormier, a 30-year-old high school vice principal, to conduct it.

Ken Cormier (left) goes over a math problem with J. B. Glass. Tutoring in reading and math helped Glass obtain his high school equivalency certificate and move up from a Public Employment Program (PEP) job as a custodial worker to a permanent position as a leadman with the city of Phoenix. A breakthrough in Glass' academic progress came when Cormier convinced him he needed glasses.

Cormier's challenge was to salvage as many PEP firefighters as he could. Fire officials were not optimistic. They thought saving four or five of the 14 would be a real achievement. Instead, 11 of the 12 who actually took the exam passed it and became regular firefighters. One trainee failed the test and two others dropped out before taking it.

City personnel officials were so impressed that they decided to set up a reading program for all interested PEP employees. After his summer work with the firefighters, Cormier had gone back to his high school job. But he was frustrated with the educational system, which he felt did not really reach or teach students. When he was offered a contract with the city in the fall of 1973 to work full time with PEP employees, he took it even though it meant less money and no job security.

Many of the persons in the reading program have little education and limited reading skills. Most have not completed high school; many did not finish the eighth grade; others can't read at all. The average student is 44 years old and a member of a minority group. For

The reading program paved the way for Stanley Tucker to become a regular firefighter. Tucker, who started as a PEP fire trainee, improved his reading from the eighth-grade level to second semester college work and is now preparing for the fire engineer exam.

many, the desire to improve themselves has long been dormant.

Cormier's classes are small—from one to six students. He provides individual help, which he considers the only effective way to teach people who start at low reading levels. The classroom may be a vacant room in City Hall, the lounge at a junior college, a student's home, or another place convenient for Cormier and his students. Since all students are volunteers studying on their own time, classes are held before or after work. Each person attends from 1 to 6 hours a week.

"The first few weeks are critical," Cormier says. "My job is to motivate my students enough to get them going." He starts out slow and easy. Students read what interests them in newspapers and magazines—for about 15 minutes. Gradually, they increase their reading time. During the process, Cormier gets to know them and, when he feels they are ready, he suggests a paperback book.

Reading Material Varies

"I don't have any prepared material," he explains. "I've built up a library of comic books, magazines, and paperbacks. The important thing is to get material that a particular person likes to read." Some, like Mouldrow, enjoy books about sports figures. With others, Steinbeck's novels—especially those about Mexican Americans—are popular. Still others want books about Martin Luther King.

Ruth Smith started on comic books and astrology. Later, she read paperbacks like CANDY and THE HAPPY HOOKER. A 40-year-old widow with a third-grade education and the mother of nine, Mrs. Smith had been on welfare for years. When she came into the reading program, she was working in her first paid job, as a temporary custodial worker for the city. In a few months, she was reading at the high school level and had changed jobs four times, each job paying more than the one before. She is now permanently employed as a home economics aide in the city's public housing department.

After a person is accustomed to reading books, Cormier slowly introduces academic work at the proper grade level or whatever technical material the student needs. "The key to continued learning," Cormier says, "is tying reading to something tangible, like a job or more money."

For Mouldrow, Mrs. Smith, and many other students the connection is clear and direct. One former trainee, who had to leave the fire department because of a disability, landed a job as assistant manager at a local tire company. Two others are custodians who advanced to supervisors with the city. A fourth is an ex-boxer with a fifth-grade education who improved his reading to the eighth-grade level and got a steady job. The top goal for many students is passing the general educational development (GED) tests

Reading

Classes in the reading program are small. Here students (clockwise from bottom) Brent Collingsworth, Macario Holquin, and Haywood Lindberg work on individually tailored assignments.

that lead to a high school equivalency certificate. Cormier concentrates on helping these students improve their reading comprehension, writing, and math. Each student works at his own pace and level and takes the GED tests when he finishes his individual preparation. In the first 8 months of the program, 59 people—about 90 percent of those taking the GED—passed the test and went on to permanent and better paying jobs, according to Cormier.

Bilingual Tutoring Offered

Among those who have passed the GED are seven Mexican American employees who have been tutored in English by Juan Espinoza, an Arizona State University graduate student and Cormier's one assistant. The bilingual program has enrolled more than a dozen workers.

Cormier also has worked with about a dozen PEP employees who enrolled in community college courses to upgrade their job skills or learn new ones. He supplements their classroom work with regular tutoring sessions to help them master technical material.

About 6 months ago the program began enrolling regular city employees who need improved reading skills to qualify for better jobs or to work in a different field. Among them are workers who must change occupations because of health problems or injuries.

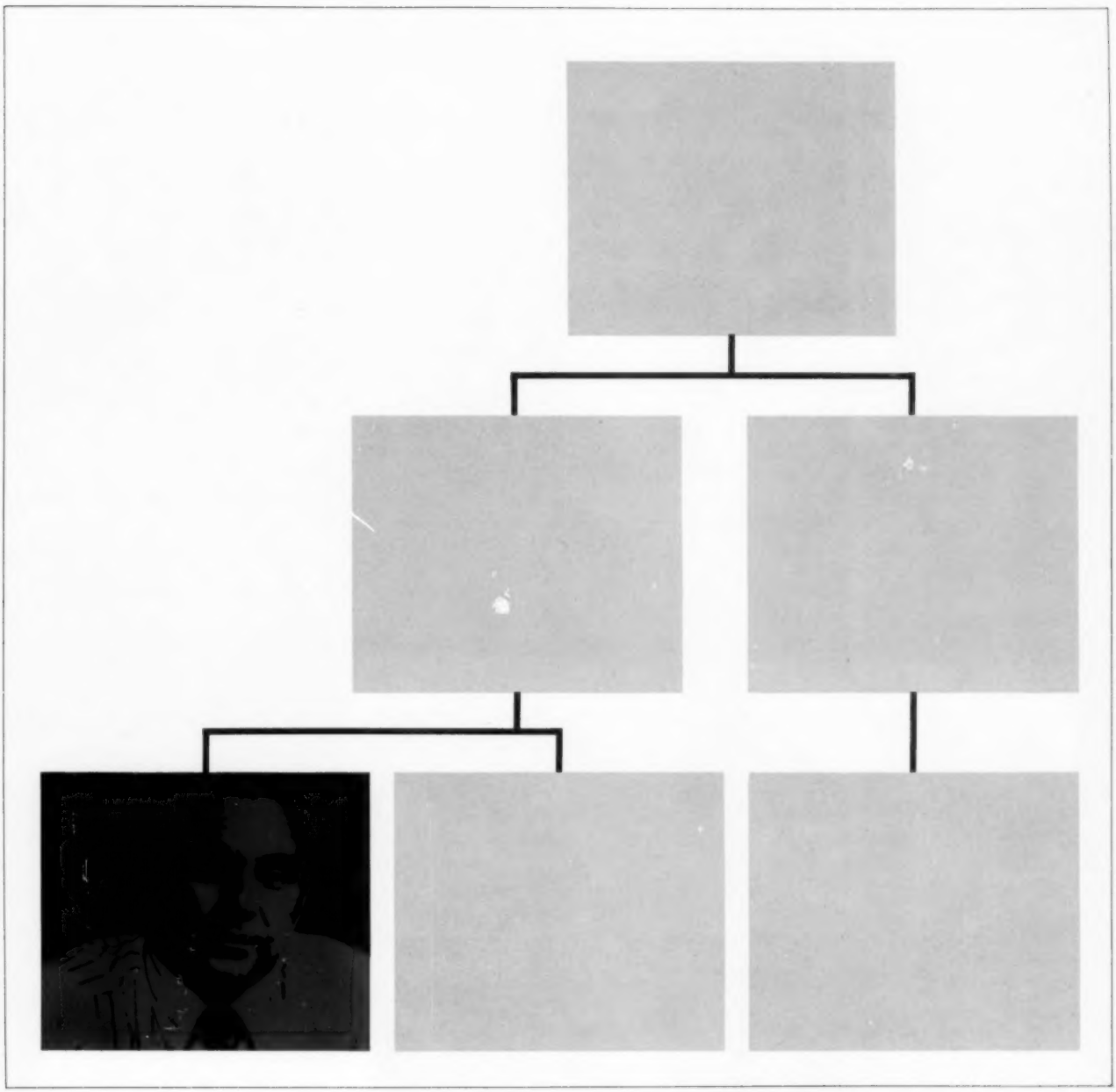
Benefits from the program are not confined to job gains. Some students discover reading as a major source of personal pleasure. When Macario Holquin, a 47-year-old Mexican American, started the program last March, he had never read a book. A month later, he finished his first, John Steinbeck's THE PEARL. Since then, he has read 14 other major novels, including WAR AND PEACE.

There are failures, of course. Some students do not improve their reading. Overall, however, the record is encouraging. About 160 people have participated in the program, including 76 who went from low elementary to the 10th-grade level and five persons who could not read at all who are now reading fifth- to seventh-grade material.

In July, the Phoenix city council extended the program for another 4 months. After that, Cormier hopes to get funded by the local prime sponsor under the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act so that the reading service can continue. Under a proposed new setup, he expects to serve not only Phoenix public employees but those working for surrounding Maricopa County as well.

Very often, intangibles like attitudes and personal relationships spell the difference between success and failure of educational and job-related programs. Cormier gets involved and he expects achievement. He may help a person pick college courses or go with him to sign up. He may help arrange transportation or solve personal problems. When no permanent city jobs are open in a PEP worker's occupation, he may help the person find work in private industry.

Above all, he has faith in his students—and he lets them know it. For people who have experienced too many failures to have much faith in themselves, that is important. Carlo Martini, who was a common laborer for 14 years until he read his way into a custodial supervisor's job, puts it like this: "Ken is very patient, but the big thing is that he really cares. When I was working on my GED, I kept saying, 'I can't do it.' He kept telling me, 'You can.' And he was right." □



Developing Executive Talent

On-the-Job Experience Used to Build Management Skills in Federal Government

by Joseph U. Damico

One of the most pronounced trends in the private industry work force in recent years has been the increase in the proportion of white-collar and service jobs compared with blue-collar positions. This means that there is a growing similarity between the occupational spectrum in private industry and the Federal Government, and that Government manpower development experiences are relevant to a growing

Joseph Damico is director of the U.S. Civil Service Commission's Bureau of Executive Manpower.

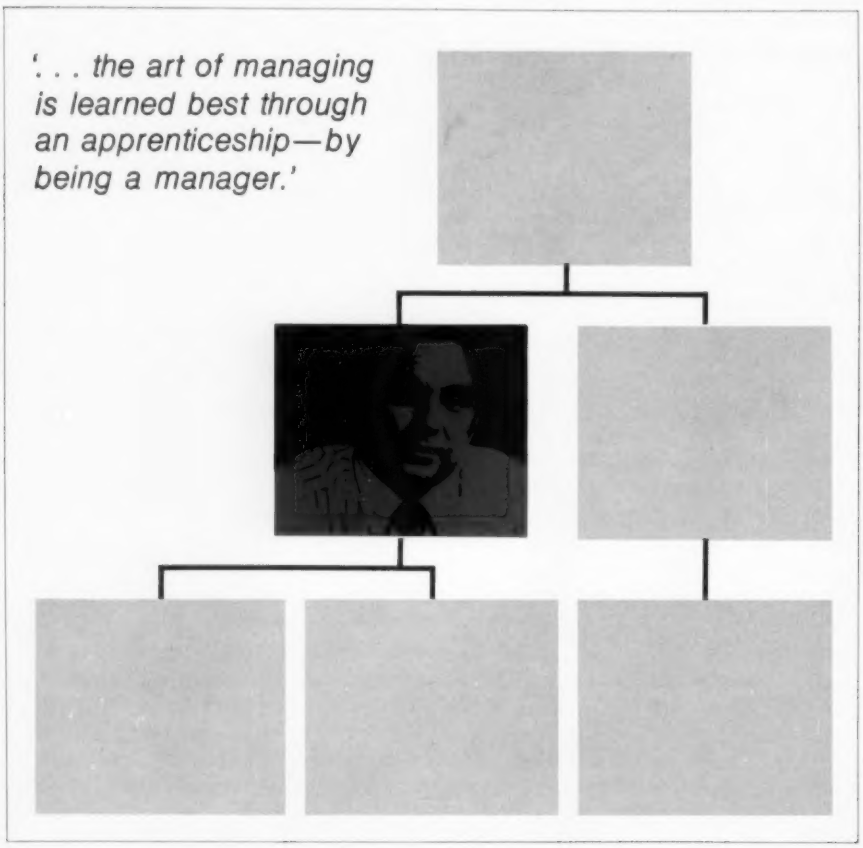
portion of the business sector.

At the same time, the work of both business and government has grown more and more complex, and the task of managing these enterprises has grown tougher. There was a time when management jobs typically were handed out as rewards for workers' loyalty and good past performance of specific skills. Today, management is a mature profession. How well the manager is able to manage is a key element in the success—or failure—of a business firm or government agency.

The public manager's job is far more complicated than many people realize. Long gone are the days when the only thing managers had to worry about was the day-to-day operation of the specific function they supervised; the modern Federal manager must consider the wide-ranging effects of one program upon another.

Today, too, events are continually reshaping the scope and direction of Federal programs. The defense budget, for instance, which only recently amounted to more than half of all Federal expenditures, is now down to about a third of the total, while expenditures for human betterment are up. The goals of these and other programs fluctuate from year to year, and even from month to month, in response to various social, economic, and political pressures.

'. . . the art of managing is learned best through an apprenticeship—by being a manager.'



The public manager today needs more systematic development and training than ever before. And the Government must prepare its future managers now. The average Federal executive is now 53 years old and will be eligible for optional retirement in about 5 years. Attrition among executives is running about 10 percent annually and may go even higher because of current limitations on Federal executive pay and the incentive for early retirement resulting from pension increases that are keyed to rises in the cost of living. This steady exodus of highly talented key executives is impacting heavily on the continuity of Federal program management.

The Government Employees Training Act of 1958 authorized the expenditure of agency funds for training to improve both present and future job performance. Since then, the number and kinds of formal classroom training have grown dramatically, but broad-scale executive and management development has not kept pace.

Many people still think of executive development solely as management training, usually an off-the-job seminar on management by objectives, organizational development, or some other popular technique of the day. While such training is still a useful tool, there is a more basic kind of executive development, one which is essentially the same technique used for centuries in the trades and crafts. This is on-the-job training where one learns how to manage by actually managing. Although management techniques can be

A group of Federal employees participates in a Civil Service Commission-sponsored management training course.

learned in a classroom or seminar setting, the art of managing is learned best through an apprenticeship—by being a manager.

The Federal Government is moving away from a "cafeteria" approach to training where an employee sifts through a set of brochures and picks a training course that looks as if it might be interesting, entertaining, or maybe even useful. The objective now is to have executive development take the form of planned assignments to progressively more responsible managerial positions, supplemented by formal management training based on individual needs.

The most innovative feature and key element in this new approach to executive development in the Federal Government is the individual development plan. It is a simple concept that emphasizes joint decisions by the employee and the supervisor on the specific developmental experiences needed to prepare that particular employee for assumption of higher managerial responsibilities. Individual development plans could be useful for employees at any level of an organization; as a practical matter, however, most organizations use them only for managers or employees who have been identified as having high management potential. Use of individual development plans throughout the Federal service will significantly alter the shape of executive development in the future.

Plans Follow No Pattern

An underlying assumption of the individual development process is that an employee's supervisor knows (or can find out) where the agency's programs are "going" and what kinds of executives will be needed. Armed with this information, the supervisor and subordinate can jointly identify the knowledge, skills, and experiences the individual needs to prepare for future responsibilities—in keeping with the goals and objectives of the agency. A typical plan for a potential executive will start with a realistic appraisal of present talents, and will aim toward a realistic future goal.

One individual development plan might call for extensive formal training; another might emphasize developmental assignments in other organizations. There is no set pattern—the term "individual" is basic to the concept—especially as it applies to the employee's willingness and capacity to learn and grow.

To make the process and its potential clear, take the case of an emerging manager in a large agency where broad-scale automation of operations is planned, along with delegation of greater decisionmaking responsibility to regional and district offices throughout the country. Management is aware that a number of regional and district office directors expect to retire in the next 3 to 5 years. Obviously, these retirements will create opportunities for aspiring and able individuals with the proper experience and training.

Fully aware of the agency's field situation, Frank Prentiss and his super-

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The individual development plan for Maurice Fowler, a procurement manager for the Air Force's Electronics Systems Division in Bedford, Mass., included a stint with the Department of Housing and Urban Development's (HUD) New Communities Administration in Washington, D.C. Here Fowler (left) discusses his assignment with William C. Sorrentino of HUD.

Joseph Damico, director of the Civil Service Commission's Bureau of Executive Manpower, outlines the Government's new approach to executive training to a group of Federal officials who have the responsibility for putting the plan into effect in their agencies.

Executive Talent

visor begin to work up Prentiss' development plan. Prentiss is in midcareer, having been with the same agency for all of the 16 years since his graduation from college as a business administration major. He has moved through a series of staff jobs in which he was primarily an individual performer in the relatively narrow specialty of contracting and procurement. His writing and meet-and-deal abilities helped to identify him as an employee with high potential for more responsible assignments. He recently moved into his first job with managerial responsibilities and supervises a technical staff of 18. Although he has taken basic supervisory courses, he has had little experience and no formal training in administration since college.

Prentiss' supervisor assesses him as a likely candidate for a district director post in 3 years and possible candidate for regional director in 5. He discusses with Prentiss both his strengths and the additional development he needs to qualify for serious consideration for these field jobs. They quickly agree that an early step should be Prentiss' participation in a 2-week course for new managers at an Executive Seminar Center. They also agree on the need for a mobility assignment for a year or so as deputy director of a district office or the head of one of its operating divisions within the next year or two.

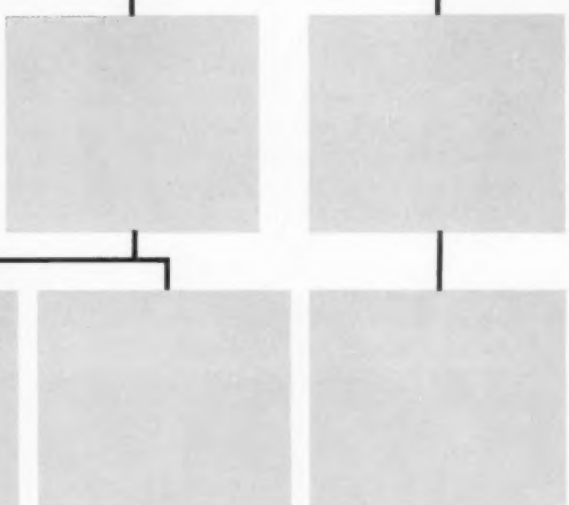
In light of the agency's automation plans, they build into Prentiss' development blueprint an assignment in the data processing office as assistant to a top operating official; as an alternative he should attend automatic data processing courses for managers. And since a management-by-objectives system has been introduced in the agency, they schedule Prentiss for a seminar in that. Finally, they propose that in about 4

years he should attend the Federal Executive Institute's 7-week course for advancing managers.

With agreement on this plan for Prentiss, his supervisor submits it to his superior. With the superior's concurrence, the plan becomes a road map for Prentiss and agency management to follow. But just as Prentiss' career is developing and may take unexpected directions, so must the plan be open to change. Prentiss and his supervisor will review it annually to make certain it remains sound and realistic.

While on-the-job developmental assignments are the heart of an individual development plan, formal classroom training also has an important role in executive development. It can supplement previous education and provide additional knowledge or skills needed for maximum managerial effectiveness. Individual Federal agencies provide some of this training. It also is provided by the U.S. Civil Service Commission, by universities and colleges, and by private firms or consultants under contract to the agencies.

'The objective now is to have executive development take the form of planned assignments to progressively more responsible managerial positions . . .'



Many Courses Offered

The Defense Department has been in the forefront of agency-sponsored executive and managerial training. The Naval Air Systems Command, for instance, trains top managers in its own Naval Aviation Executive Institute. Programs offered include seminars, lectures, panels, and other educational experiences in cooperation with high-level government and industry leaders. These programs are specifically tailored to meet the different needs of various groups of the Air Systems Command's senior and emerging executives. Other executive educational programs operated by Defense Department agencies include the Industrial College of the Armed Forces and the various war colleges.

Residential training for executives from all Federal agencies is offered at the Civil Service Commission's Federal Executive Institute at Charlottesville, Va. Keystone of the institute curriculum is a 7-week program designed specifically for incumbent executives. This program offers a wide array of courses ranging from leadership styles to seminars on black history. Participants may work on special projects to satisfy their own individual development objectives. The institute also offers a variety of shorter programs including a 3-week seminar for new executives which is designed to help middle-level managers make the transition into executive ranks.

The Civil Service Commission also operates residential Executive Seminar Centers at Kings Point, N.Y.; Oak Ridge, Tenn.; and Berkeley, Calif. Most of these programs run for 2 or 3 weeks. In addition, shorter management courses are offered by the Commission in Washington, D.C., and in its 10 regional training centers.

Since the majority of Federal execu-

tives are selected from within their own agency, the agency emphasis of most executive development programs is altogether appropriate. There is a need, however, for some "generalist" managers who can function effectively in a variety of agencies or programs.

To assure the availability of managers of this kind, the Office of Management and Budget, in cooperation with the Civil Service Commission, this year initiated the Federal Executive Development Program (FEDP). The FEDP is providing an opportunity for 25 outstanding Federal career managers to participate in a year-long program of formal training and developmental work experiences. Participants were selected from among some 3,000 applicants at grade GS-15—the top career grade below the so-called "supergrade" level. The program began with 8 weeks of residential training at the Federal Executive Institute, followed by one or more developmental work assignments in various Government agencies. The program will be continued in 1975 and may be made permanent if evaluation indicates that it has been effective.

Obstacles Still Remain

Progress is being made in Federal executive development but obstacles still remain. Some of these obstacles derive from the way the Government itself is organized. Large departments and agencies are subdivided into bureaus that have different missions and, hence, different executive manpower needs. Consequently, uniform agency-wide application of executive development programs is inappropriate and central leadership is difficult to exert. Executive development programs also can run into trouble because of faulty policy development, lack of clear goals, inadequate resource allocation, and unavailability of technical expertise.

The existence of negative attitudes toward developmental programs, especially among line managers, is not uncommon, and such attitudes can operate to motivate people not to devote time and money to the training of subordinates. When managers are rewarded primarily for short-range accomplishments—especially those that are highly visible to their superiors and to the public—investments in long-range programs such as executive development are difficult to sell. Then, too, agencies naturally are reluctant to release their most productive managers for any kind of long-term educational or developmental experience.

Some managers subscribe to the "survival-of-the-fittest" theory of executive development. They hold that good managers emerge only from rough-and-tumble competition. There is some truth in this, of course. Managers who survive this process usually are capable, but often they also are ill-informed about managerial techniques that might increase their effectiveness. A further drawback to this process is that it is exceptionally wasteful of potential talent. Exhortation will not change these attitudes, but top-management support for executive development will.

The Federal Government's strategy for the future calls for executive development to be an integral part of day-to-day personnel management operations in all agencies. The blueprint for Government-wide executive development activities is contained in guidelines sent to Federal agencies early this year from the Civil Service Commission. Briefly, the prescribed approach goes like this:

Each agency will identify its managerial positions, specify the knowledges and abilities needed by people occupying these positions, identify nonmanagers with managerial potential, assess the degree to which incumbent or potential managers possess the required attributes, and prepare individual development plans for incumbent and potential managers. Monitoring and evaluation of agency progress is being done jointly by the Office of Management and Budget and the Civil Service Commission through a series of "on-site" visits to Federal agencies.

Clearinghouse Set Up

To assist agencies in establishing effective executive development programs, the Commission has organized an Executive Manpower Management Technical Assistance Center (EMMTAC). The Center serves as a central contact point for advisory, consultative, and information exchange services on all aspects of executive manpower management. EMMTAC's clearinghouse and referral service is designed to help agencies make maximum use of the experience and research of other organizations. In addition, EMMTAC publishes technical assistance papers, three of which—on identification of managerial potential, individual development planning, and forecasting of executive manpower needs—are now available from the Bureau of Executive Manpower, U.S. Civil Service Commission.

Meeting the issues and solving the problems facing the Nation probably will become increasingly difficult. It is essential, therefore, that Government have a core of career executives well grounded in modern management to assure efficient and economical delivery of essential public services. Making executive development an integral part of every agency's management responsibilities will provide that assurance. □

Words & Figures

Women and the Employment Service

The differential in the median starting pay of men and women placed by the employment service narrowed a little in fiscal year 1974. The median pay for women who were placed was $1.91 an hour, up 17 cents from fiscal 1973. For men, the median pay was $2.15, a 12-cent hike over the previous year. About 19 percent of the men placed received $3.40 an hour, compared with 5 percent of the women. At the other end of the wage scale, more than 11 percent of women applicants placed by the employment service got jobs paying under $1.60, compared with 5.4 percent of the men.

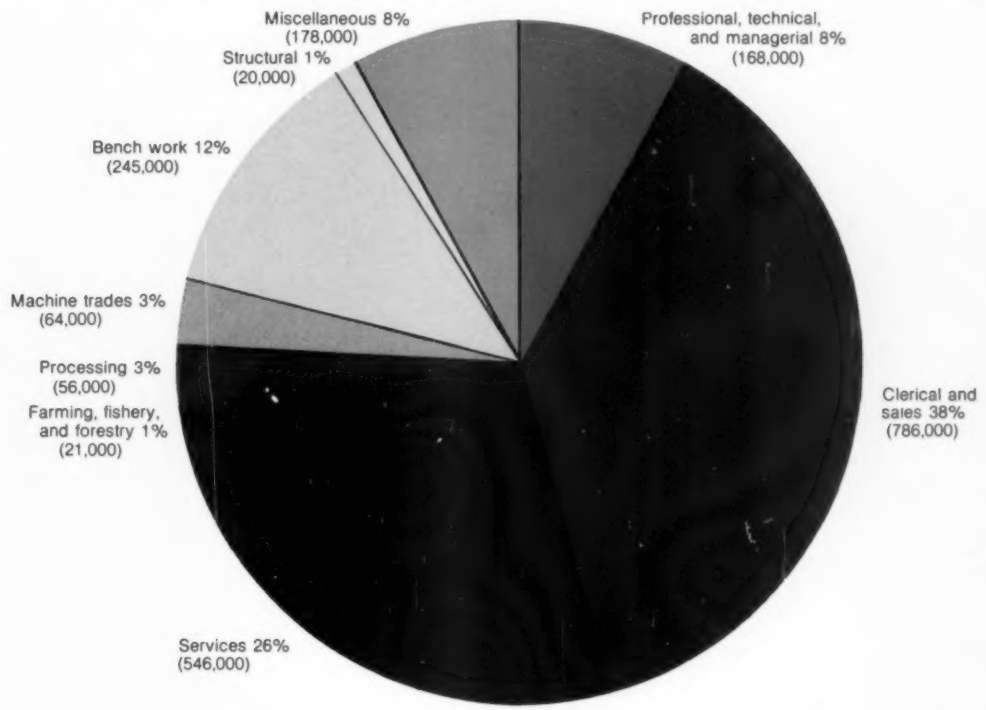
The employment service placed 23 percent of all its women applicants during fiscal 1974, up from 21.2 percent the previous year but still below the 26.6 percent placement rate for men applicants.

Women applicants were heavily concentrated in clerical and service occupations. Almost 40 percent of the more than 2 million women in employment service active files as of June 30, 1974 were classified as clerical and sales workers; another 26 percent were in service occupations such as waitress, practical nurse, and the like. Benchwork—sewing machine operator, electronic assembler, and similar jobs—accounted for 12 percent. Eight percent of women jobseekers were in the professional, technical, and managerial category, with about half of these concentrated in the health, educational, and social work fields.

Women made up a higher proportion of job applicants at public employment offices during fiscal year 1974 than they did of the Nation's overall labor force. Of 13.3 million people who registered or renewed registration with the employment service last year, 5.8 million or 44 percent were women, while women comprised 39 percent of the total labor force.

Occupational Classification Of Women Employment Service Applicants—June 30, 1974

Total—2,084,000


Miscellaneous 8% (178,000)
Structural 1% (20,000)
Professional, technical, and managerial 8% (168,000)
Bench work 12% (245,000)
Machine trades 3% (64,000)
Processing 3% (56,000)
Farming, fishery, and forestry 1% (21,000)
Clerical and sales 38% (786,000)
Services 26% (546,000)

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They're not quite full-fledged apprentices, but high school youngsters in an unusual training program in Washington, D.C., are getting a head start on a career in the skilled trades and building credits toward high school graduation at the same time. There's a report beginning on page 13 in this issue of MANPOWER.